DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 183 445 SO 012 371

AUTHOR van de Vall, Mark; Bolas, Cheryl
TITLE The Utilization of Social Policy Research: An Empirical Analysis of Its Structure and Functions.
PUB DATE Aug 79
NOTE 32p.; Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association (74th, Boston, MA, August 27-31, 1979)

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Decision Making; Feedback; Information Dissemination; Publications; Researchers; *Research Utilization; *Social Action; Social Change; Social Organizations; Social Science Research; Speeches; Use Studies

ABSTRACT

Results of a study to determine the impact of social policy research upon organizational decisions are reported. Studies of 120 projects in the Netherlands were drawn from three areas of social policy making: industrial and labor relations, regional and urban planning, and social welfare and public health. Three functions of social policy research -- diagnostic, communicative, and cognitive -- are evaluated in terms of policy impact. Results concerning diagnostic functions indicate that the impact of social policy research upon organizational decisions is higher when the research sponsor and research consumer are identical or closely linked; projects accompanied by a steering committee of research team, sponsor, and consumer representatives score higher on policy impact than projects without a steering committee; and projects in which the research introduces, defines, and formulates the problem score higher on impact than those in which the researcher's role is collecting and analyzing information. Communicative functions are concerned with six feedback strategies: design, timing, utilizing various communication channels, manipulating the volume of output, and methods of presenting research results. Findings indicate that using any of the six strategies has a positive effect on the project's impact; social researchers are unaware of the impact of various feedback strategies; and planning strategies at an early state of research enhances the impact of the project. An examination of cognitive functions (publication of research) reveals that research published for a general public has more impact than that published for scholarly journals or not at all. (KC)

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The Utilization of Social Policy Research: An Empirical Analysis of its Structure and Functions

Mark van de Vall
University of Leyden
and SUNY/Buffalo

and

Cheryl Bolas
Erie County Dept. of
Mental Health of New York

SP 012 371

74th Annual Meeting of the American Sociological Association, August 27-31, 1979, Boston, Mass., Section 214: Social Policy, Nelson N. Foote, Chairman.

The Utilization of Social Policy Research: An Empirical Analysis of its Structure and Functions

Mark van de Vall and Cheryl Bolas

University of Leyden and SUNY/Buffalo

Erie County Dept. of Mental Health of New York

1. Social Research Utilization: Science and Policy:

In a recent work Rule (1978) argues that social problems are an expression of overt or concealed social conflict. Consequently, solving social problems is often more a matter of satisfycing opposing group interests than applying methods of scientific research. In this conception, the relationship between social research and social policy is partially ideological, i.e. rooted in non-scientific considerations.

In light of this view, social researchers treat the utilization of their work in policymaking surprisingly often as a given, without paying attention to its conditions, structure and manifest or latent functions. This is illustrated, for instance, by the fact that systematic analyses of the different aspects of social research utilization are virtually non-existent (van de Vall, Bolas and Kang 1976). We are not aware of one study comparing the ways social researchers and policymakers perceive and evaluate the structural and functional aspects of utilizing social policy research.*

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* Rather than using the traditional concept of 'applied social research' (Lazarsfeld and Reitz 1975) we prefer the more valid term 'social policy research' for reasons explained in this paper.

2. Our Method of Research and Evaluation:

The authors have analyzed 120 projects of social policy research conducted in The Netherlands. Representative samples of 40 projects were drawn from three areas of social policy making: (1) industrial and labor relations, (2) regional and urban planning, (3) social welfare & public health. For analyzing each of the research projects a triangulated design was used, combining data from the following sources: (1) a semi-structured interview with the researcher who conducted the research project; (2) a similar interview with the policymaker who translated the research results into policy measures; (3) a theoretical and methodological analysis of the final report of social policy research.* Analyzing data from the two groups of respondents, three different aspects of 'utilization' were distinguished, indicating that social policy research fulfills diagnostic, communicative and cognitive functions in organizational decision making.

To evaluate these functions for their impact upon organizational decisions, a dependent variable was constructed, called 'policy impact'. Policy impact is operationally defined as: 'specific organizational decisions or policies that are traced by the researcher and the policymaker to the investigated project of social policy research.' Combining data from four questions in the interviews with the researchers with similar data from the interviews with the policymakers, Overall Policy Impact-scores or (OPI/4)-scores were constructed and validated.** The (OPI/4)-scores were used for evaluating the effect of the diagnostic, communicative and cognitive functions of social policy research upon organizational decisions.

3. The Diagnostic Functions of Social Policy Research:

In terms of organizational policy making, an important role of social policy research is diagnosing a concrete social problem, with the ultimate purpose of its solution. Before analyzing the various diagnostic aspects of social policy research, we will discuss three structural conditions affecting this function.

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*For additional information about sampling, data collecting and sponsoring agencies, See Appendix (A).

**For additional information about the four questions, the weighting of the answers, the validity and reliability of the (OPI/4)-scores, See Appendix (B).

3.1. Structural Conditions of Problem Diagnosis:

Among the conditions affecting the diagnostic role of social policy research are: (1) the inter-organizational context of the project of social policy research; (2) the existence or absence of a so-called 'steering committee' of representatives of groups involved in the problem; (3) the social researcher's role in detecting and formulating the research problem.

3.1.1. The Inter-Organizational Context:

Social researchers and policymakers agree that the existence or absence of interorganizational relationships between the funding agency (the sponsor) and the organizations that will use the research (the consumer) have an effect upon the utilization of the research results in organizational decisions. This is illustrated in Table (1):

Table (1) here:

From the data in Table (1) we conclude:

1. The impact of social policy research upon organizational decisions is higher when the research sponsor and research consumer are identical or closely linked, rather than consisting of two separate and independent organizations.

While the first type of interorganizational context prevails in The Netherlands, where corporations, religious organizations, labor unions and government agencies usually employ in-house social researchers, the second context, of independence between sponsor and consumer, is more widespread in the United States, where NSF, NIH and NIMH are funding large numbers of social research projects. Although the latter context is probably more beneficial for conducting social science discipline research, the data suggest it to be dysfunctional for an optimal utilization of social policy research. This con-

Table (1): The relationship between research sponsors and research consumers in projects of social policy research evaluated by social researchers and policymakers.*

Research sponsor and research consumer are :	social researchers (OPI/4)	f	policymakers (OPI/4)	f	sr & pm (OPI/4)	f
Identical, or linked and dependent	-.17	(106)	.52	(102)	.17	(208)
Separate and independent	-1.32	(11)	-.61	(14)	-.92	(25)
		(117)		(116)		(233)

*(OPI/4), sr & pm: F = 3.71, P ≤ .05. Two-way anova: F = 2.54, P ≤ .08. Independent var.: F = 4.03, P ≤ .05. sr - pm: n.s. Excl. DK. standardized scores.

clusion is supported by the fact that projects conducted by external consultants were found to score consistently lower on impact than projects conducted by internal researchers.*

3.1.2. The Effects of a Steering Committee:

A procedure for bridging the inter-organizational gap is establishing a so-called steering committee, consisting of representatives from (a) the research team, i. e. usually the research director, (b) the research consumer(s), and (c) the sponsoring organization. In Table (2) researchers and policymakers agree on the positive effects of a steering committee upon the projects' impact upon organizational decisions:

Table (2) here:

The data in Table (2) lead to the following conclusion:

2. Projects of social policy research accompanied by a steering committee consisting of representatives from the research team, the research sponsor and the researcher consumer(s) tend to score higher on policy impact than projects lacking a steering committee.

The data indicate that steering committees are especially helpful in the early stage of the projects, when the problem is detected and formulated and the researchers are introduced to the respondents, and at the closing stage, when the policy measures are formulated emanating from the research results. The interaction between researchers, sponsors and consumers not only enhances the projects' epistemological validity but also their implemental validity, resulting in higher impact.

*Standardized (OPI/4)-scores: sr + pm: $F = 8.37$, $P \leq .004$. Two-way anova: $F = 5.68$, $P \leq .004$. Independent variable: $F = 8.40$, $P \leq .004$. sr - pm: n.s. For additional information, See van de Vall 1979.

Table (2): The absence or presence of a steering committee in projects of social policy research, evaluated by social researchers and policymakers.*

Absence or presence of a steering committee:	social researchers (OPI/4)	f	policymakers (OPI/4)	f	sr + pm (OPI/4)	f
Steering committee is absent:	-.60	(67)	-.13	(60)	-.38	(127)
Steering committee is present:	.20	(53)	.78	(60)	.42	(113)
		(120)		(120)		(240)

*Standardized (OPI/4)-scores: sr + pm: $F = 5.37$, $P \leq .02$. Two-way anova: $F = 4.29$, $P \leq .02$. Independent variable: $F = 4.91$, $P \leq .03$. sr - pm: n.s.

3.1.3. The Researcher and the Problem:

Closely related to inter-organizational linkages and the presence of a steering committee are the researcher's opportunities to actively participate in introducing the problem to the policymaking organization, and (re)formulating the problem in terms of social policy research. Table (3) presents the researchers' and policymakers' evaluation of projects where the researcher had played an active role in (a) introducing the problem, and (b) formulating the problem, compared with projects where his role was merely confined to data collecting and analysis:

Table (3) here:

The data in Table (3) lead to the following conclusion:

3. Projects of social policy research where the researcher plays an active part in introducing, defining and (re-)formulating the problem of research score higher on impact than projects where the researcher's role is merely confined to collecting and analyzing information.

It is safe to assume that organizational linkages between research sponsors and consumers, and the presence of steering committees where researchers take part in the deliberations, will facilitate the latter's active participation in formulating the research problem.

3.2. The Functional Aspects of Problem Diagnosis:

For analyzing and evaluating the diagnostic functions of social policy research we asked the researchers and policymakers whether and how the project had resulted in changes in their (1) perception of the problem's main features, (2) understanding of the problem's major causes, (3) assessment of the seriousness of the problem.
Because the term 'change' proved too vague for analytic purposes, this concept was operationalized in the following variants: 1. correction, 2. specification, 3. generalization, 4. confirmation, 5. intensification, 6. expansion. In Table

Table (3): Projects of social policy research in which the researcher either participated or did not participate in (a) introducing the investigated problem, and (b) formulating the investigated problem, evaluated by social researchers and policymakers.*

	Researcher's role in introducing the problem*						Researcher's role in formulating the problem**					
	social researcher		policymaker		sr + pm		social researcher		policymaker		sr + pm	
	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f
Social researcher did NOT participate	-1.18	(43)	.03	(65)	-.45	(108)	-1.43	(12)	-.62	(30)	-.85	(42)
Social researcher DID participate	.15	(77)	.67	(55)	.37	(132)	-.20	(108)	.64	(90)	.18	(198)
	* SR + PM: F = 5.55, P ≤ .02. Two-way anova: F = 5.94, P ≤ .003. Independent variable: F = 7.20, P ≤ .005, SR - PM: F = 6.16, P ≤ .01						** SR + PM: F = 5.13, P ≤ .02. Two-way anova: F = 3.51, P ≤ .03. Independent variable: F = 6.39, P ≤ .01. SR - PM: n.s.					

(4) the researchers' and policymakers' combined answers are presented, together with their evaluation of the projects' impact:

Table (4) here:

The data in Table (4) indicate that the majority of the research projects result in a sharper or more comprehensive perception of the problem, followed by a better understanding of the problem's underlying conditions and independent variables. Changes in assessment of the seriousness show the lowest frequency of those three effects.
Evaluating the impact of the above changes upon policy making, we found the highest difference in impact-scores when comparing the projects that had improved understanding of the problem with the projects lacking this result. Thus:

4. Projects of social policy research resulting in a better understanding of the problem's underlying conditions, independent variables and systemic functions, result in a higher rate of impact than projects without this effect ($df = 1$, $F = 8.86$, $P \leq .003$).

Projects of social policy research which provide deeper insight in the social structure of the problem, the underlying conditions of the problem behavior, its sustaining social forces and, if possible, future trends, are apparently more easily incorporated in the process of decision making than research projects that merely provide a static description of the social problem. The implication is that, although the structure-functional approach is increasingly under attack in sociological circles (Szymanski 1972) this approach may still provide one of the most effective roads to social problem solving.
Probably the most important result from Table (4) is that the projects of social policy research which succeed in disseminating, spreading or generalizing an improved perception, interpretation or assessment of the problem score consistently higher on impact (Perception: (OPI/4) = 2.31; Understanding: (OPI/4) = 2.86; Assessment: (OPI/4) = 1.62). This outcome suggests that:

Table (4): Diagnostic effects of social policy research in perceiving, understanding and assessing the investigated social problem, evaluated by social researchers and policymakers combined.*

Changes resulting from the diagnosis	Perception of the problem (OPI/4)	f	Understanding of the problem (OPI/4)	f	Assessment of the problem (OPI/4)	f
Corrected, improved	.07	(43)	.61	(22)	1.04	(38)
Specified, detailed	.21	(82)	.15	(27)	.29	(12)
Generalized, spread	2.31	(13)	2.86	(10)	1.62	(22)
Confirmed, supported	.56	(13)	---	--	---	--
Intensified, deepened	---	--	.19	(38)	.01	(9)
Expanded, broadened	---	--	.26	(11)	---	--
No changes from the diagnosis and D.K.	-.48	(89)	-.42	(132)	-.49	(159)
	$F = 3.53$		$F = 3.35$		$F = 5.12$	
	$P \leq .01$		$P \leq .01$		$P \leq .001$	

* Standardized (OPI/4)-scores. (sr + pm). Results in the three policy sectors Industry: Perception, $F = 3.04$, $P \leq .02$; Understanding: $F = 4.03$, $P \leq .003$; Assessment: $F = 3.41$, $P \leq .01$. Regional and urban planning: Perception: n.s.; Understanding: n.s.; Assessment: $F = 5.50$, $P \leq .001$. Social welfare & public health: all sectors: n.s. Although the reported F-ratio's are significant, reliability is diminished due to the number of empty cells.

4. Projects of social policy research resulting in enhanced consensus among those involved in decision making about the problem's social structure, underlying conditions and/or damaging effects have the highest impact upon organizational policy making.

When they are confronted with a policy problem, organizations require a minimum level of consensus about the problem within their ranks before they can embark upon designing policy measures and developing a line of policy action. This explains probably why creating a minimum level of consensus about the problem is one of the major diagnostic effects of social policy research, resulting in a high impact upon organizational decisions.

4. The Communicative Functions of Social Policy Research:

Creating consensus is not possible without communication. When the diagnosis is completed, the next step is feeding the results back to the policymakers. Traditionally, the feedback role of social policy research has been restricted to submitting copies of a research report to the sponsoring agency and/or research consumer. Recently, however, a number of different feedback strategies have emerged. Among the 120 research projects we found no less than six different feedback strategies, for instance, used for communicating the research results to individuals and groups involved in the process of policy making. Before evaluating them we will first describe each of these strategies.

4.1. Discussing the Six Feedback Strategies:

Hard to recognize as a feedback strategy is using a research design that will generate policy recommendations rather than verify theoretical hypotheses. This strategy was according to the researchers used in 30 per cent of all projects. Of the various methodological designs available in the social sciences, we found therather low ranking social surveys to score considerable higher on impact than the more powerful experimental designs (van de Vall and Bolas 1977).

A little more popular (38%) is timing the research output in order to co-align the research results with other streams of action constituting the process of policy making (Thompson 1967). Although at first sight a rather simple

requirement, we found no less than 70 per cent of the projects to have suffered from serious delays.

Another feedback strategy is utilizing various communication channels, i.e. vertical and horizontal, oral and written, telephone and face-to-face, formal and informal. According to the researchers this device was used in 35 per cent of the projects. Earlier findings suggest that internal researchers have access to a wider range of communication channels than external consultants (van de Vall 1979).

Manipulating the volume of output is a fourth strategy, used in 28 per cent of all projects. In the industrial sector we established a negative correlation between the volume of research output, in number of report pages, and degree of policy impact (van de Vall, Bolas and Kang 1976).

A little used strategy is directing information to special communication targets. An example is that the research results are not only communicated to the policymakers but also to the potential subjects of the policy. Used in 20 per cent of the projects, this strategy showed the lowest frequency out of the six.

Finally, as most researchers know, differences in presentation will affect the projects' utilization. Technical terms interfere with accessibility, complicated frequency tables belong in an appendix, and adding a summary to the report may prevent overload. Used in 42 per cent of the projects, this is the most widely used of the six strategies.

4.2. Evaluating the Six Feedback Strategies:

Using a dichotomy of 'used' versus 'not used' according to researchers and policymakers, an evaluation of the above feedback strategies is presented in Table (5):

Table (5) here:

Taking into account that the impact-scores in the first column (sr) and the third column (pm) range from .26 to .83 and .65 to 2.49 respectively, we may conclude that the use of different feedback strategies is accompanied by con-

Table (5): Use versus non-use of six feedback strategies in projects of social policy research, evaluated by social researchers and policymakers.*

Feedback strategy	social researchers				policymakers				sr + pm				Anova**		
	used		not used		used		not used		used		not used		sr Var.	pm	Main
	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f	(OPI/4)	f			
Design	.76	(46)	-.89	(70)	1.14	(29)	-.08	(82)	.91	(75)	-.42	(152)	+	-	+
Timing	.71	(37)	-.68	(79)	1.13	(31)	-.02	(80)	.90	(68)	-.35	(159)	+	-	+
Channels	.66	(42)	-.76	(73)	1.19	(34)	-.10	(77)	.89	(76)	-.42	(150)	+	-	+
Volume	.60	(34)	-.59	(78)	.65	(17)	.24	(93)	.62	(51)	-.14	(171)	-	-	-
Targeting	.83	(24)	-.54	(88)	2.49	(15)	-.07	(94)	1.47	(39)	-.30	(182)	+	+	+
Presentation	.26	(50)	-.77	(63)	1.36	(29)	-.05	(83)	.67	(79)	-.36	(146)	+	-	+
Other	.59	(19)	-.43	(91)	1.01	(15)	.13	(93)	.78	(34)	-.14	(184)	-	-	-

*Excl. DK. Standardized (OPI/4)-scores.

** P ≤ .05: + = significant
- = non significant

siderable differences in impact. With the scores in the 'used' columns consistently exceeding the corresponding scores in the 'not used' columns in Table (5)*, we may conclude:

6. Using any of the six feedback strategies for communicating the results of social policy research has a positive effect upon the projects' rate of impact upon organizational decisions.

Yet, contrary to what one would expect, the different rates of impact of the six strategies are not reflected in the relative frequency in which they are used in the 120 research projects. In fact, the data in Table (5) show hardly any relationship between the relative frequency of the six feedback strategies and their relative impact, which leads to the following observation:

7. Social policy researchers are little aware of the differential impact of the various feedback strategies available in organizational decision making.

After this overall appraisal of the strategies, the question arises whether some of the six are more effective, resulting in higher impact, than others. While the data in Table (5) indicate little agreement about this question between the researchers and the policymakers, the two groups show complete consensus about the superiority of one specific strategy, i.e. communicating the research information to special target groups. Thus:

8. Selecting various targets of information and adjusting the research output to their specific conditions and abilities is a most effective feedback strategy, leading to a relatively high rate of impact.

This conclusion should be viewed against the observation in the previous section, that targeting is less frequently used (20%) than any of the other feedback strategies. Additional information about this strategy is presented in Section (5).

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*Sign test: $N = 14$, $x = 0$, $P \leq .001$.

Of the remaining strategies, the typical input strategies of 'design' and 'timing' are found to score second and third highest, while such output strategies as 'presentation' and 'volume' score lowest on impact. Consequently:

9. Planning such input strategies as 'design' and 'timing' at an early stage of the research project will enhance the impact of social policy research upon organizational decisions.

The above conclusions are indicative of certain differences in salience between disseminating the results of social science discipline research and social policy research. While dispersing the results of social discipline research is mainly confined to such output strategies as restrictions of volume and systematic presentation, disseminating the results of social policy research requires a considerably earlier planning, and a greater diversity of diffusion strategies.

4.3. The Effects of Counterfeedback:

Due to the spread of such participative tactics of decision making as advocacy research and citizens' action, the results of social policy research are not always unquestioningly accepted by the respective target populations. In about one-quarter of the 120 projects (20% according to the researchers, 30% according to the more knowledgeable policymakers) the subjects of a policy had expressed their dissatisfaction with the results and/or recommendations in the research reports.[1]
It would be sociologically naive to assume that counterfeedback will always reduce the projects' impact upon organizational decisions. In fact, comparing the effect of counterfeedback in the three samples of projects, we found the opposite result:

Table (6) here:

The data in Table (6) support the following conclusion:

Table (6): The absence and presence of counterfeedback in projects of social policy research in three sectors of social policy making, evaluated by social researchers and policymakers.*

Absence or presence of counterfeedback from policy subjects	Industrial and labor relations (sr + pm) (OPI/4)	f	Regional and urban planning (sr + pm) (OPI/4)	f	Social welfare and public health (sr + pm) (OPU/4)	f	The three samples combined (n = 120) (sr + pm) (OPI/4)	f
Projects confronted with counter-feedback	1.87	(18)	2.27	(25)	.29	(13)	1.68	(56)
Projects NOT confronted with counter-feedback	-.61	(62)	-.16	(55)	-.71	(67)	-.51	(184)
(OPI/4)-scores.	F = 14.48 P ≤ .001		F = 15.03 P ≤ .001		F = 1.69 P ≤ .20 (n.s.)		F = 31.96 P ≤ .0001	

10a

10. Projects of social policy research which after reporting have generated counterfeedback score higher on impact than projects of which the results have been unquestioningly accepted by the target populations.

Although the trend in conclusion (10) is manifest in all three policy sectors, it is significant only in industrial relations, regional and urban planning, and the three combined samples (n = 120). Analyzing the arguments underlying the counterfeedback, we found disagreement with the expected policy consequences to be most numerous, followed by doubts about the methodological quality of the research project, and by dissemination with the ways the results had been disseminated. Each of these arguments was accompanied by a higher rate of impact than the majority of the projects lacking counterfeedback.*

5. The Cognitive Functions of Social Policy Research:

To publish or not to publish? According to Myrdal (1969) the main function of social science discipline research is dispersing empirical information about society and correcting false beliefs among the public about current social problems. According to Morrissey and Steadman (1977), however, unrestricted dissemination of social policy research creates dissensus between researchers seeking widespread cognition of their findings and policymakers who fear that unrestrained publicity will interfere will solving concrete social problems. While our data indicate that in general publishing of social policy research correlates positively with impact (publishing versus non-publishing: $F = 7.74$, $P \leq .005$), we found this result not to hold for all types of publication. In Table (7) researchers and policymakers agree that publishing for elite publics, i.e. professionals and scholars, is accompanied by different rates of impact than publishing for non-elites, i.e. the general public:

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*Standardized (OPI/4)-scores: sr + pm: $F = 6.38$, $P \leq .0001$. Two-way anova: $F = 2.20$, $P \leq .06$. Independent variable: $F = 2.46$, $P \leq .05$. sr - pm: n.s. Excl. D.K.

Table (7) here:

Surprisingly, the data in Table (7) indicate that publishing for a wider public through the mass media, although often discouraged by policymakers (Morrissey and Steadman 1977), relates positively with impact. Publishing the results of policy research in media read by scholars and professionals, however, while advocated by policy researchers (Morrissey and Steadman 1977), shows a negative correlation with impact upon policy decisions.*

Summarizing:

11. Projects of social policy research which are published before a general public are accompanied by a higher rate of impact than projects which are either published for a scholarly audience or not published at all.

This raises questions why the scholarly publishing of social policy research should correlate negatively with policy impact. Earlier findings based upon the same 120 projects suggest an answer. In each of the three samples of research reports the authors have found negative correlations between policy impact and such scholarly features as: (a) the use of theoretical concepts in the research reports, and (b) degree of methodological perfection of the research projects (van de Vall and Bolas 1977; 1978. van de Vall, Bolas and Kang 1976).

In conclusion (11) we encounter another negative correlation, this time between policy impact and: (c) publishing of the results in scholarly outlets. Together, the findings (a), (b) and (c) suggest that:

*Dichotomizing between publishing of policy research data in scholarly outlets versus any other way of dissemination we found a parallel trend in: industrial and labor relations (sr + pm: $F = 2.84$, $P \leq .09$); social welfare & public health (sr + pm: F 7.80, $P \leq .01$); and the three combined samples (sr + pm: $F = 8.37$, $P \leq .01$, $n = 120$).

Table (7): Publishing and non-publishing in projects of social policy research, evaluated by social researchers and policymakers.*

Publishing vs. non-publishing	social researchers (OPI/4)	f	policymakers (OPI/4)	f	sr + pm (OPI/4)	f
NO publication besides report	-.38	(67)	.23	(73)	-.07	(140)
Publication:						
for an elite public	-.93	(23)	-.34	(19)	-.66	(42)
for a non-elite public	.25	(30)	1.05	(28)	.64	(58)

* Standardized (OPI/4)-scores, sr + pm: $F = 2.61$, $P \leq .03$. Two-way anova: $F = 2.99$, $P \leq .02$. Independent variable: $F = 2.96$, $P \leq .05$. sr - pm: n.s. Excl. D.K.

12. In social policy research, conforming to epistemological standards required for publishing in scholarly outlets tends to interfere with an equal concern for the implemental standards required for utilization in organizational policy making.

The implication is that in social policy research scholarly standards are not necessarily identical with policy standards. Although conforming to epistemological norms is imperative in social policy research as well as in social discipline research, researchers and policymakers are in agreement that this requirement is not always easily to combine with the implemental requirements of organizational policy making. This dual standard in social policy research of epistemological and implemental validity renders it different from mere applied social discipline research. Our data suggest that, not dissimilar from earlier developments in the medical and engineering professions, social policy research is emerging as an independent professional paradigm.

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Footnotes:

1 Almost all (OPI/4)-scores rated by the policymakers are higher than the corresponding impact-scores from the social researchers. Investigating why, we compared the frequences of D.K. (Don't Know) between the two groups of respondents in all 16 frequency tables underlying our analysis. In 14 tables we found the number of DK's among the social researchers exceeding those among the policymakers, indicating that the policymakers are better informed about the utilization of projects of social policy research in organizational decisions (sign test, $N = 16$, $x = 2$, $P \leq .05$). Thus, when evaluating the impact of social policy research, the policymakers' assessment should be included in the ratings.

Appendix (A): Sampling, Data collecting and Funding.

a. Sampling procedures:

Sampling of the (3 x 40) projects of social policy research was conducted in three stages.
1. All projects of social policy research in The Netherlands conducted between 1960 and 1971 were registered in the areas: industrial and labor relations, regional and urban planning, and social welfare & public health. For this purpose a questionnaire was mailed to the membership of the Netherlands Association of Social Researchers (VSWO).
2. From each of the resulting populations a sub-population was drawn of projects which according to the researcher and the policymaker had resulted in a certain degree of utilization (impact).
3. From each of the 3 sub-populations a representative sample of 40 projects was drawn, having the following characteristics: a. use of social research methodology, b. conducted by a social science professional, c. research results presented in a written report.

b. Data collecting:

Data about the structure, functions, theory and methods of the 120 projects of social polocy research were obtained through an analysis of the research reports, followed by semi-structured interviews with the social researcher and the policymaker. The repprt analyses and (2 x 120) interviews were conducted by a team of 25 Dutch social science graduates (AbD's and Ph D's). Interviewers and coders were instructed in the Dept. of Sociology, Erasmus University, Rotterdam, The Netherlands.

c. Sponsoring agencies:

The research project was funded by public and private agencies and organizations in The Netherlands and the United States. Netherlands' sponsors were: the Netherlands Association of Manufacturers, the Government Ministries of Economic Affairs; Education & Welfare; Social affairs & Public health; Housing & urban planning. The senior author received a special research fellowship from the National Center of Health Services Research and Development, # F03 HS 44,982 for 1969-70 and 1970-71, Washington D.C. Completion of this paper was funded by Grant # 1 R01 MH 26687 01 SP of the National Institute of Mental Health.

Appendix (B): A Description of the Dependent Variable.

a. The Construction of (OPI/4):

To measure the effect of the projects of social policy research upon organizational policy making (utilization), four indicators of policy impact were selected, each consisting of a sub-score based upon the following questions with social researchers and policymakers:

1. Manifest impact: are there identifiable spinoffs in decisions or measures (describe in full) from the research project at the following stages of policy formation:

Step	Role	Weight
(A) Initiating a policy	(a) advising	3
Same	(b) deciding	6
(B) Preparing a policy	(a) advising	2
Same	(b) deciding	4
(C) Executing a policy	(a) advising	1
Same	(b) deciding	2

With (A) occurring at higher hierarchical levels, (B) at intermediate levels and (C) at lower supervisory levels, and role (b) having greater impact upon policy making than (a), (A), (B) and (C) were weighted 3,2, and 1 respectively, and (a) and (b) 1 and 2 respectively, resulting in weights ranging from 0 through 18 (van de Vall and King 1973).

2. Stage impact: are there identifiable spinoffs in decisions or measures (describe in full) at the following stages of the research project: 1. formulating the problem, 2. operationalizing in research terms, 3. sampling and data collecting, 4. data analysis, 5. (in)formal discussions, 6. (in)formal interim reporting, 7. final reporting, 8. transforming the results into policy measures, 9. follow-up of recommendations, 10. correcting and/or adjusting recommendations, 11. otherwise. Summed weights ranging from 0 through 11.

3. Certainty impact: identifiable spinoffs in decisions or policy measures (describe in full) in: 1. perceiving the problem, 2. explaining the problem, 3. assessing the problem, 4. solving the problem. Weights ranging from 0 through 4.

4. Latent impact: identifiable spinoffs in decisions or policy measures (describe in full), e.g.: 1. postponing a decision, 2. enhancing rank and file participation, 3. enhancing problem awareness, 4. enhancing the policymakers' status, 5. establishing an information monopoly, 6. prevention of policy errors. Weights ranging from 0 through 6.

For comparing the evaluations of social researchers (sr) and policymakers (pm) the items 1, 2, 3, and 4 were standardized (Downie and Heath 1965). This resulted in Overall Policy Impact or (OPI/4)-scores with $\bar{X} = 0.0$, standard deviation = 2.70, range = -5.05 - 7.38, variance = 7.312.

b. The Validity of (OPI/4):

1. Content validity: to ensure contect validity open interviews were held with researchers and policymakers outside the samples, and used for constructing the semi-structured interview schedules. The interviewers were trained along the dimensions of range, depth, role and specificity (Galtung 1970). Items related to the expertise of researchers and policymakers were included in the scales. The correlation coefficients of the four items constituting (OPI/4) are:

Table (B1) here:

2. Internal validity: this requires the score to be equally valid for all subgroups in the three samples (Neale and Liebert 1973). Thus, possible distortion due to selective retention of the respondents had to be taken into account. With the projects dating from 1960-71, and the interviews conducting in 1969-71, lacunae in the respondents' memories would have been possible. However, only four projects (3%) were concluded before 1964. These were large-scale projects accompanied by documentation about their utilization; by consulting these records the respondents succeeded in reducing selective retention.

3. Pragmatic validity: this requires prediction with respect to an outside criterion (Kerlinger 1964). (OPI/4)'s pragmatic validity is indicated by the fact that although the 3 samples were drawn from different and independent populations, basic trends in one eample were also found in the other two. The results of Table (6) of this paper provide an example.

4. Convergent validity: when combining the rating of researchers and policymakers, e.g. in (sr + pm), we assume the two scores measuring the same concept (impact). Using Bohrnstedt's method for measuring convergent discriminant validity for a set of scores (Bohrnstedt 1969), the following correlations between the (SR/OPI-4) and (PM/OPI-4) scores were established: industrial and labor relations = .49; regional and urban planning = .69; social welfare and public health = .52. The mean correlations of the 3 combined samples = .57 (n = 120).

5. Item-to-total validity: Lacking hard indicators required for criterion related construct validity, the total score was used as a substitute criterion (Bohrnstedt 1969). Item analysis of the (2x4) items within thr 3 samples, and the combined 120 projects, resulted in:

Table (B2) here:

c. The Reliability of (OPI/4):

1. Internal reliability: the close relationship between validity and reliability notwithstanding, the reliability of (OPI/4) should be established independently from procedures used for determining validity (Bohrnstedt 1971). Using Cronbach's procedure for establishing internal consistent reliability (Bohrnstedt 1969), the resulting Cronbacj alpha = .61.

Table (B1): Intercorrelation matrix of the (OPI/4) items*

	1	2	3	4
1. manifest impact	1.00	.28	.35	.42
2. s t a g e impact		1.00	.13	.25
3. certainty impact			1.00	.24
4. latent impact				1.00

*$\bar{X}$ intercorrelation = .28 (n = 240).

Table (B2): Item-to-total correlations in (OPI/4) in the three samples and combined samples.

Sub-score:	Industrial and labor relations (n = 40)	Regional and urban planning (n = 40)	Social welfare and public health (n = 40)	The three samples combined (n = 120)
sr-1	.39	.54	.66	.52
sr-2	.48	.36	.22	.52
sr-3	.34	.35	.35	.36
sr-4	.28	.64	.35	.45
pm-1	.52	.46	.54	.51
pm-2	.56	.16	.38	.36
pm-3	.37	.53	.37	.42
pm-4	.44	.47	.45	.46

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